

**Exe 1, CRH to OWF. (10 points)** Prove that the existence of collision-resistance hash function family (definition 12, lecture 5) implies the existence of one-way functions.

**solution 1** As we did in HM2, exercise 3 (PRF imply PRG), lets make precise the notion of "randomly choose a function from the ensemble":

We have under discussion the ensemble  $\{\mathcal{H}_n\}$ , which we assume is a CRH. We know that it's an efficient function ensemble, so we know that there exist a PPT algorithm  $D(1^n)$ , that return a description of a function in  $\{\mathcal{H}_n\}$ . We assume that this description is a string  $s \in \{0, 1\}^*$ . Together with  $D$  we have some other (deterministic) polynomial algorithm:  $H(1^n, s, x)$ , that given  $s$  (the output of  $D$ ), and some  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ , returns  $H(1^n, s, x) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ . This is exactly the definition of a function in  $\mathcal{H}_n$ :

$$h_s : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n \quad h_s(x) = H(1^n, s, x)$$

Denote by  $p$  the polynomial that bounds the running time of  $D$ . Given a string  $r \in \{0, 1\}^{p(n)}$ , we can assume that  $D$  is a deterministic algorithm acting as:  $D(1^n, r)$ , yielding a string  $s$ , which is a description of function in  $\mathcal{H}_n$ . So from now, by writing  $h \leftarrow \mathcal{H}_n$ , or saying "randomly choose a function from  $\mathcal{H}_n$ ", we mean to chosen uniformly  $r \leftarrow U_{p(n)}$  then compute:  $s = D(1^n, r)$ . We also denote that  $s$ , as  $s_r$ , emphasizing that this  $s$ , came from the randomness  $r$ .

Baring in mind those previous notations, and given a CRH ensemble  $\{\mathcal{H}_n\}$ , define the following function, that will be proved to be OWF:

$$f : \{0, 1\}^{p(n)+2n} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{p(n)+n} \quad h_s(r \circ x) = h_{D(1^n, r)}(x) \circ D(1^n, r)$$

Some clarifications:

- The domain of  $f$  is actually a pair of strings.  $r$  of length  $p(n)$ , and an input  $x$ , from the domain of the functions of  $\mathcal{H}_n$ . Given an element in the domain of  $f$ , we always know how to break it to  $r$  and  $x$ , because we know their lengths.
- We use the notation  $f(r, x)$  as  $f(r \circ x)$
- The part  $r$  in the input string, serves as the randomness of  $D(1^n, r)$ . So randomly choose  $r$  from  $\{0, 1\}^{p(n)}$ , is the same as randomly choose a function  $h_s \leftarrow \mathcal{H}_n$ . Thus the output of the function is  $h_s(x) \circ s$ . Since  $|h_s(x)| = n$ , by looking at an output of  $f$  we know what is the  $s$  (hence what is  $h_s$ )

Here is out main claim:

**Claim 0.1.** *The above  $f$  is OWF*

*Proof of Claim 0.1.* Assume not. So we have a PPT algorithm  $A(1^{p(n)+2n}, y = f(r, x))$  a polynomial  $q(n)$ , and infinitely many  $n$ , such that:

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{p(n)}, x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{2n}}[(r', x') := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, f(r, x)) \quad : \quad (r', x') \in f^{-1}(f(r, x))] > \frac{1}{q(n)}$$

Lets simplify the above expression:

$$(r', x') \in f^{-1}(f(r, x)) \Leftrightarrow f(r', x') = f(r, x) \Leftrightarrow h_{D(1^n, r)}(x) \circ D(1^n, r) = h_{D(1^n, r')}(x') \circ D(1^n, r')$$

Denote  $s_r = D(1^n, r)$ , and  $s_{r'} = D(1^n, r')$  we have:

$$h_{D(1^n, r)}(x) \circ D(1^n, r) = h_{D(1^n, r')}(x') \circ D(1^n, r') \Leftrightarrow h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_{r'}}(x') \text{ and } s_r = s_{r'}$$

So we can write:

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{p(n)}, x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{2n}}[(r', x') := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, f(r, x)) \quad : \quad h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_{r'}}(x') \text{ and } s_r = s_{r'}] > \frac{1}{q(n)}$$

We really don't care whether  $s_r = s_{r'}$  or not. The real thing that is of interest for us is that  $h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_r}(x')$ . So if  $A$  didn't succeed in inverting the pair  $(r, x)$ , but somehow succeeded to produce a good  $x'$ , it's OK with us. Since dropping the  $s_r = s_{r'}$ , just enlarges the event we are interested in, we get:

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{p(n)}, x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{2n}}[(r', x') := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, f(r, x)) \quad : \quad h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_r}(x')] > \frac{1}{q(n)} \quad (1)$$

So lets have an intuitive discussion. (1) is the key point to our reduction. Given  $h_s(x)$ , if  $A$  is able to find an  $x'$  such that  $h_s(x) = h_s(x')$ , we come very close to break the hardness of  $\mathcal{H}_n$ . But still we have the problem that maybe  $x = x'$ . But since  $x, x'$  are chosen from the domain of  $\{0, 1\}^{2n}$ , much larger than the range of  $f_s$  ( $\{0, 1\}^n$ ), we know that with a high probability:  $x \neq x'$ . That is enough to contradict the hardness of  $\mathcal{H}_n$ . Formally here is the proof for that:

Consider the following algorithm  $B(1^n, s)$ , which break the hardness of out PRH:

**Algorithm 0.2** ( $B$ : break  $\mathcal{H}_n$ ).

input:  $1^n, s$  where  $f_s$  randomly chosen from  $\mathcal{H}_n$

- *uniformly sample*:  $x \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{2n}$
- *let*  $r', x' := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, h_s(x) \circ s)$
- *return*  $\langle x, x' \rangle$

So now, we need to show that the following probability is not negligible:

$$\Pr_{h_s \leftarrow \mathcal{H}_n}[(x, x') := B(1^n, s) : x \neq x' \text{ and } h_s(x) = h_s(x')]$$

By look at the definition of  $B$  we get that the above probability equals:

$$\Pr_{h_s \leftarrow \mathcal{H}_n, x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{2n}}[(r', x') := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, h_s(x) \circ s) : x \neq x' \text{ and } h_s(x) = h_s(x')]$$

Writing it again, but instead of  $h_s \leftarrow \mathcal{H}_n$ , use  $r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{p(n)}$  we get:

$$\Pr_{r \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{p(n)}, x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{2n}}[(r', x') := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, h_{s_r}(x) \circ s_r) : x \neq x' \text{ and } h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_r}(x')]$$

Lets ease the notation by baring in mind the domain of the randomness, and the notation:  $(r', x') := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, h_{s_r}(x) \circ s_r)$ .

Denote the following events:

- $E_1$  is the event:  $x \neq x'$
- $E_2$  is the event:  $h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_r}(x')$
- $E_3$  is the event:  $h_{s_r}(x)$  has more that 1 source

We mainly interest in the situation that  $h_{s_r}(x)$  has more that 1 source. Obviously we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[x \neq x' \text{ and } h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_r}(x')] &= \Pr[E_1 \text{ and } E_2] \\ &\geq \Pr[E_1 \text{ and } E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \\ &= \Pr[E_1 \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3] * \Pr[E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Now lets try to give lower bounds for the last 2 factors.

**Claim 0.3.**  $\Pr[E_1 \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \geq \frac{1}{2}$ .

*Proof of Claim 0.11.* The following is obvious:

$$\Pr[x' = x \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3] = \sum_{a \in \{0,1\}^{2n}} \Pr[x' = a \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3 \text{ and } x = a] \cdot \Pr[x = a] \tag{3}$$

The elements in that sum for which values of  $a$  not fulfilling  $E_2$  and  $E_3$ , are 0 so we ignore them. For the positive elements we notice that due to condition  $E_3$ , for each such  $a$  there exist at least one  $a' \neq a$  such that  $h_{s_r}(a) = h_{s_r}(a')$ . Now consider algorithm  $A$  when it performs the following line:

let  $r', x' := A(1^{p(n)+2n}, h_s(x) \circ s)$

For each such  $a, a'$ , the call to  $A(1^{p(n)+2n}, h_s(x) \circ s)$  is the same. Hence information theoretically we know that  $x'$  have the same distribution for both  $x = a$  and  $x = a'$ . So the following equality holds:

$$\Pr[x' = a \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3 \text{ and } x = a] = \Pr[x' = a' \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3 \text{ and } x = a] \quad (4)$$

The following is also obvious:

$$\Pr[x' \neq x \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \leq \sum_{a \in \{0,1\}^{2n}} \Pr[x' = a' \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3 \text{ and } x = a] \cdot \Pr[x = a] \quad (5)$$

Note that it's only less or equal, because there may be values  $a$ , with a lot of corresponding  $a'$ . Using (4) we see that the sums in (3) and (5) are equal. Hence:

$$\Pr[x' \neq x \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \geq \Pr[x' = x \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \quad (6)$$

And the claim is proved.  $\square$

**Claim 0.4.** *There exist a polynomial  $q_1(n)$  such that:  $\Pr[E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \geq \frac{1}{q_1(n)}$ .*

*Proof of Claim 0.4.* Using the regular union bound technique we get:

$$\Pr[E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \geq \Pr[E_2] + \Pr[E_3] - 1 \quad (7)$$

Also it's quite easy to see that for every function  $h : \{0,1\}^{2n} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$  we have:

$$\Pr_{x \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{2n}}[|h^{-1}(\{x\})| \geq 2] = 1 - \text{neg}(n)$$

Hence it follows that:  $\Pr[E_3] = 1 - \text{neg}(n)$ . The remaining work is to give a lower bound to the probability of  $E_2$ . But this is exactly what we had in (1). So we get that  $\Pr[E_2] = \frac{1}{q(n)}$ . Putting it into (7) we get:

$$\Pr[E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \geq \Pr[E_2] + \Pr[E_3] - 1 \geq \frac{1}{q(n)} + 1 - \text{neg}(n) - 1 \geq \frac{1}{q_1(n)}$$

For some polynomial  $q_1(n)$   $\square$

Putting the last 2 claims in (2), we get that:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[B \text{ succeed to break } \mathcal{H}_n] &= \Pr[x \neq x' \text{ and } h_{s_r}(x) = h_{s_r}(x')] \\ &\geq \Pr[E_1 \mid E_2 \text{ and } E_3] * \Pr[E_2 \text{ and } E_3] \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{q_1(n)} \end{aligned}$$

Contradicting the hardness for  $\mathcal{H}_n$   $\square$

**Exe 2, Birthday paradox (10 points).** Prove that  $\Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n} [\exists x \neq x' \in \mathcal{S} : \pi(x) = \pi(x')] \in \Omega(1)$ , where  $\mathcal{S} \subset \{0, 1\}^n$  is of size  $2^{n/2}$  ( $n$  is a power two).

You might find the following inequality useful:  $e^{-x} \geq (1 - x)$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$

**solution 2** Given  $\mathcal{S} \subset \{0, 1\}^n$  of size  $2^{n/2}$ , denote it by:  $\mathcal{S} = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{2^{n/2}}\}$ .

For  $\pi \in \Pi_n$ , define the events  $A_i$  and  $B_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq 2^{n/2}$ :

$A_i$ :  $\{\pi(s_1), \dots, \pi(s_i)\}$  - are different

$B_i$ :  $\pi(s_i) \notin \{\pi(s_1), \dots, \pi(s_{i-1})\}$

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_i] &= \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_i \mid A_{i-1}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_{i-1}] \\ &= \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_i \mid A_{i-1}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_{i-1} \mid A_{i-2}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_{i-2}] \\ &= \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_i \mid A_{i-1}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_{i-1} \mid A_{i-2}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_{i-2} \mid A_{i-3}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_{i-3}] \\ &= \dots \\ &= \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_i \mid A_{i-1}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_{i-1} \mid A_{i-2}] \cdot \dots \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_2 \mid A_1] \end{aligned}$$

Since it's obvious that:

$$\Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_j \mid A_{j-1}] = \frac{2^n - (j - 1)}{2^n}$$

We get:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_i] &= \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_i \mid A_{i-1}] \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_{i-1} \mid A_{i-2}] \cdot \dots \cdot \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[B_2 \mid A_1] \\ &= \frac{2^n - (i - 1)}{2^n} \cdot \frac{2^n - (i - 2)}{2^n} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{2^n - 1}{2^n} \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{i - 1}{2^n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{i - 2}{2^n}\right) \cdot \dots \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n}\right) \\ &\leq e^{-\frac{i-1}{2^n}} \cdot e^{-\frac{i-2}{2^n}} \cdot \dots \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{2^n}} \\ &= e^{-(\frac{i-1}{2^n} + \frac{i-2}{2^n} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n})} = e^{-\frac{i \cdot (i-1)}{2 \cdot 2^n}} \end{aligned}$$

Where we used the well known fact:  $e^{-x} \geq (1 - x)$ . Putting  $i = 2^{n/2}$ , we get that:

$$\Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_{2^{n/2}}] = e^{-\frac{2^{n/2} \cdot (2^{n/2} - 1)}{2 \cdot 2^n}} = e^{-\frac{2^n - 2^{n/2}}{2 \cdot 2^n}} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2^{n/2}}{2 \cdot 2^n}}$$

Hence for  $n \geq 4$  we have:

$$\Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_{2^{n/2}}] = e^{-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2^{n/2}}{2 \cdot 2^n}} \leq e^{-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{4}{2 \cdot 16}} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8}} = e^{-\frac{3}{8}}$$

Back to what we need to prove:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n} [\exists x \neq x' \in \mathcal{S} : \pi(x) = \pi(x')] &= 1 - \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n} [\forall x \neq x' \in \mathcal{S} : \pi(x) \neq \pi(x')] \\ &= 1 - \Pr_{\pi \leftarrow \Pi_n}[A_{2^{n/2}}] \\ &\geq 1 - e^{-\frac{3}{8}} \in \Omega(1) \end{aligned}$$

**Exe 3, Interactive Proofs, Goldreich, Chapter 5, exe 2, (10 points)** Prove that if  $\mathcal{L}$  has an interactive proof system with *deterministic* verifier, then  $\mathcal{L} \in \text{NP}$ . Guideline: note that if the verifier is deterministic, then the entire interaction between the prover and verifier can be determined by the prover.

**Exe 3** Assume  $(P, V)$  is an interactive proof for  $\mathcal{L}$ , where  $V$  is a deterministic. The first step is the following claim

**Claim 0.5.** *There exist a deterministic prover  $P^{det}$ , such that  $(P^{det}, V)$  (same deterministic  $V$  as given) is interactive proof for  $\mathcal{L}$*

*Proof of Claim 0.5.* The idea behind removing  $P$  randomness is to use the property that the prover can be all powerful machine, so it can simulate  $P, V$  and all the possibilities of  $P$ 's randomness

So suppose  $x \in \mathcal{L}$ . If  $r \in \{0, 1\}^l$  is a randomness of  $P$ ,  $P^{det}$  can simulate  $P(r), V$  when interaction on  $x$  deterministically. At the end of a specific simulation either:

1.  $P^{det}$  exhaust  $r$  - so it quits this specific simulation, and move to the next one (with different  $r$  ...)
2.  $V$  rejected the input. In this case also  $P^{det}$  move to the next simulation
3.  $V$  accepts. So  $P^{det}$  writes all the interaction he made with  $V$  during this simulation, and use it in the 'real' simulation with  $V$

It's obvious that  $P^{det}$  can scan all possible randomness strings in  $\{0, 1\}^*$ , simply in increasing order of length, and for each length  $l$  scan all  $2^l$  possibilities. Since  $(P, V)$  accepts  $x$  with positive probability (even higher than  $2/3$ ), we know that  $P^{det}$  will find a good random sequence, and will be able to use it when it interacts with  $V$ . (this interaction will make  $V$  to accept because  $V$  is deterministic)  $\square$

So from now we'll assume  $P$  is deterministic.

**Claim 0.6.**  *$(P, V)$  have perfect completeness. that is:*

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{L} \quad \Pr[< (P, V)(x) > = 1] = 1$$

*Proof of Claim 0.6.* Since both  $P$  and  $V$  are deterministic, we get that for every  $x \in \mathcal{L}$  either

1.  $\Pr[< (P, V)(x) > = 1] = 1$
2.  $\Pr[< (P, V)(x) > = 1] = 0$

Obviously the second option is impossible since  $\Pr[< (P, V)(x) > = 1] \geq 2/3$   $\square$

**Claim 0.7.**  *$(P, V)$  have perfect soundness. that is:*

$$\text{For any algorithm } P^* \text{ and } \forall x \notin \mathcal{L} \quad \Pr[< (P^*, V)(x) > = 1] = 0$$

*Proof of Claim 0.7.* Assume on the contrary that there exist an algorithm  $P^*$ , and input  $x \notin \mathcal{L}$  such that:

$$\Pr[< (P^*, V)(x) > = 1] > 0$$

The same way as we proved Claim 0.5, we can prove that there exist a deterministic cheater  $P_{det}^*$ , that interacting with  $V$  on  $x$  will make  $V$  accept  $x$ . So for that  $P_{det}^*$ , and that specific  $x$  we get

$$\Pr[< (P_{det}^*, V)(x) > = 1] = 1 > \frac{1}{3}$$

Contradiction. □

Now we can prove out main claim:

**Claim 0.8.**  $\mathcal{L} \in NP$

*Proof of Claim 0.8.* Consider the (deterministic) interactive proof  $(P, V)$  we have for  $\mathcal{L}$ . Assume this is a  $k$ -steps interaction proof, so for every  $x \in \mathcal{L}$  we have the following  $2k$  messages (actually strings) passes between  $P$  and  $V$ :  $p_1(x), v_1(x), \dots, p_k(x), v_k(x)$ .

We define the witness of  $x \in \mathcal{L}$  as:

$$w(x) = p_1(x) \# p_2(x) \# \dots \# p_k(x) \quad (\text{As usual we assume '}' is a new symbol}).$$

We define a deterministic polynomial algorithm  $A(x, w(x))$  that fulfil:

1.  $\forall x \in \mathcal{L} \quad A(x, w(x)) = 1$
2.  $\forall x \notin \mathcal{L} \quad \text{and } \forall w' \in \{0, 1\}^* \quad A(x, w') = 0$

The algorithm:

**Algorithm 0.9** ( $A(x, w(x))$ ).

input:  $x$ ,  $w(x) = p_1(x) \# p_2(x) \# \dots \# p_k(x)$

- Start an interaction with  $V$ , on input  $x$ .
- for ( $i = 1$  to  $k$ ) do:
  - Send  $V$  the message  $p_i(x)$
  - wait for  $V$  to response
  - if ( $V$  accepts)
  - return 1
  - else
  - return 0

.....

Due to Claim 0.6 it's obvious that  $\forall x \in \mathcal{L} \quad A(x, w(x)) = 1$ . The existence of an input  $x \notin \mathcal{L}$ , and a fake witness  $w'$ , such that  $A(x, w') = 1$ , will contradict Claim 0.7. □

**Exe 4, Zero knowledge (10 points)** Prove that the interactive proof presented in class for graph non-isomorphism is *honest-verifier* perfect zero-knowledge (i.e., the ZK definition is restricted to  $V^* = V$ ).

Bonus (5 points): Is the above protocol (full fledged) zero knowledge? justify your answer as good as you can.

**solution 4** Denote by  $(P, V)$  the interactive prove we saw in class for  $GNI$ . Here is a PPT algorithm  $S$ , simulate perfectly the interaction  $(P, V)$  on an input  $x \in GNI$

**Algorithm 0.10** ( $S$  simulator for  $(P, V)$ ).

input:  $x = (G_0 = ([m], E_0) , G_1 = ([m], E_1))$  where  $G_1$  not isomorphic to  $G_2$

- choose  $b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$  and  $\pi \leftarrow \Pi_m$
- set  $\pi(E_b)$  the value sent to  $P$
- Set  $b' = b$
- exit

**Claim 0.11.** For every non isomorphic pair of graphs  $x = (G_0 = ([m], E_0) , G_1 = ([m], E_1))$ , we have:

$$\{< (P, V)(x) >\} \approx_{Perfect} \{S(x)\}$$

*Proof of Claim 0.11.* Since  $b$  and  $\pi$  are defined the same in  $S$  and  $V$ , it's obvious that they and the graph sent to  $P$  have the same distributions in  $S$  and  $V$ . Since we assume that the input  $x \in NIG$ , we know that  $b'$  returned by  $P$  will be equal to  $b$ , chosen by  $V$ . Hence also  $b'$  of  $V$  and  $b'$  of  $S$  have the same distribution. To summarize, we get that all the variables distributed the same under  $(P, V)(x)$  and under  $S(x)$ , hence the claim follows  $\square$

**Bonus** The IP isn't ZK. Before we explain it, let's assume the following:

- In case that the verifier sends to the prover a graph that isn't isomorphic to both  $G_1, G_2$ , the prover quits. (Hence the verifier knows the fact that the graph he sent isn't isomorphic to  $G_1, G_2$ )
- The (cheating) verifier  $V^*$ , can get an input given to it before it starts to communicate with  $P$ . So assume it get a graph  $G'$ , denote this fact as  $V_{G'}^*$ . In this case, a simulator for  $V_{G'}^*$ , will also get the same input graph:  $S_{G'}$ .



Consider the following cheating verifier:

**Algorithm 0.12** ( $V_G^*$ , where  $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ ).

input:  $x = (G_0 = ([m], E_0) , G_1 = ([m], E_1))$

- *send  $E$  to  $P$*
- *if ( $P$  aborts)*
- *set  $isomorphic = false$*
- *else*
- *set  $isomorphic = true$*

Assuming that the above protocol is  $ZK$ , we conclude that there is a simulator  $S_G$  that simulate  $V_G^*$  for every  $x = (G_0, G_1)$  non isomorphic graphs:

$$\text{view of } S_G(x) \approx_c \text{view of } V_G^*(x)$$

Using this simulator we can get a  $BPP$  algorithm for solving the  $GI$  problem:

**Algorithm 0.13** (B: Solve  $GI$  problem).

input:  $x = (G' = (V, E') , G'' = (V, E''))$

- *define  $\widetilde{G'}$  to be a graph not isomorphic to  $G'$  (remove or add an edge)*
- *call to  $S_{G'}(\widetilde{G'}, G'')$*
- *if(  $S.isomorphic = false$ )*
- *decide  $G'$  not isomorphic to  $G''$*
- *else*
- *decide  $G'$  isomorphic to  $G''$*

Where by  $S.isomorphics$  we mean the variable  $isomorphic$  of  $V^*$ . Notice that since  $\widetilde{G'}$  isn't isomorphic to  $G'$ , the prover quits iff  $G'$  isn't isomorphic to  $G''$ . Hence out algorithm  $B$  will return with probability (close to)  $2/3$ , the correct answer.